

March 29, 1930

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# AVIATION

*The Oldest American Aeronautical Magazine*

THE STORY OF *Aircraft Tubing*

THE “*Flying Wing*”

*Legal Problems* FACE THE *Airlines*





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We are writing this letter to thank you for the very excellent service you have rendered us in connection with the use of your Berryloid service on our airplanes. We are very glad to have found this service so satisfactory and we are sure that you will find it so, too.

We are writing this letter to thank you for the very excellent service you have rendered us in connection with the use of your Berryloid service on our airplanes. We are very glad to have found this service so satisfactory and we are sure that you will find it so, too.

Very truly yours,

*Ray G. Burrell*  
Ray G. Burrell  
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Division of United Aircraft and Transport Corp.



THE OLDEST AMERICAN AERONAUTICAL MAGAZINE

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EDWARD P. WARNER Editor

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## Pilot Responsibility—The Question of the Hour

**A**LMOST without realizing it the aviation industry has made an enormous stride in the last six months. A taboo has been lifted. The wrappings upon a most and a disturbing problem has been removed and the fresh air of discussion has been let in upon it. For the first time it has become not only permissible but fashionable to talk about safety, and to talk about it not by indirection, but in terms of candor and veracity.

In making a safety record, good or bad, there are four factors: equipment, personnel, ground facilities along the route and general organization of control and inspection divide the responsibility. The premonition is that most of the air lines are using the best equipment available for their purposes, and that safety is a consideration present in their minds when they select it. There is no possibility of sudden improvement there except in certain accessories and in the modification of details of interior arrangement, which may determine whether a minor crash is or is not to be the cause of serious injury to the occupants of the cabin.

There is no reason to expect that personnel can be improved overnight. The natural qualifications and the individual skill of typical transport pilots of the present day is almost beyond reproach. Certainly no substantial improvement in their inherent capacity is to be hoped for. More cannot be expected from human beings.

Ground facilities are in most cases excellent, although in some instances marked improvement is possible and desirable there, especially as some of the passenger routes recently organized. That again takes time and money, and steady progress is being made in bringing the existing routes into line with the most advanced state of such knowledge.

There remain the general organization and the deli-

tion of company policy. It is there, more than anywhere else, that considerable improvement can be sought. New types of equipment cannot be developed in our month or in our year. New pilots cannot be trained, even if we were to discover better ways of training them, in less than two or three years. Operating policies can be determined and put in force almost overnight, and when wise changes are made they can act with rapidity both upon the morale of the organization and upon its record for reliability and safety.

In the determination of general policy there are two questions which assume over-shadowing significance. Directly or indirectly, they have the burden of almost every discussion of safety and how it is to be secured. How far should the observation of hazards be compromised in the interest of regularity of service? How much responsibility should the pilot assume, and how should the burden of fundamental decision be divided between the man in the air and a controlling official upon the ground?

The first question demands extended and separate treatment and will, in due course, receive it. For the present we pause only to warn against the answer to which impulse will perhaps move the average reader, a categorical "not at all."

There is not the slightest doubt that the safety of air lines could be enormously improved if they ran only under perfect conditions. The most observation holds good for railways, and steamships, and motor buses. In practice the line must always be drawn somewhere. There are many routes on which 50 per cent of the trips are now flown in the face either of conditions actually slightly imperfect at the time of departure or of a forecast that they may probably become so somewhere along the route before landing. To eliminate all those trips would reduce the hazard very substantially, but it would also reduce the traffic to near zero. There

is a limit to the degree of availability that persons will tolerate on any trip.

The first aside. We shall return to it later. We are at present interested in the second question.

That now divides itself into two parts. Consider the situation of a pilot about to start a trip. He has all the information that can be given him. His holds in his hand the latest weather reports to be compiled. Considerations ahead are doubtful. Shall he go or not? Who is to decide?

Suppose he goes, and after an hour of flight he receives word from the ground, or has a radio report that the next collection of meteorological information shows an increasingly pessimistic outlook. Shall he go on or turn back? Again, who is to decide?

Upon one thing all services except military ones in time of war agree. The pilot should never be ordered to take off or to loop on against his will. The man who is persistently unwilling to go when others of greater experience and of proper concentration adjudge it safe may ultimately be eliminated for incompetence or for cowardice, but he is not forced into the air.

So far there is unanimity. Upon the converse, the advisability of ordering the pilot to stay on the ground when his disposition would be to fly, or indeed of giving him any orders at all, diversity of opinion is rampant.

The military services have given the ground officers the final word. In the army, and to a somewhat less extent in the navy, the officer in charge of flying on the field is supreme in time of peace. The pilot may be a colonel and the officer in charge a first lieutenant, but the plane cannot leave without a clearance. The pilot has no options. The regulation is contrary to general military position, but it has proved itself wise. We found its existence three or four years ago, and we approve it now.

Commercial air lines are in a different position. Their object in selecting pilots can be more specified. The personnel can be picked almost exclusively for conservative judgment and persistence of technique. The object to be sought in the training of the organization with a conviction that safety is preeminent, that the pilot who acts to insure it will always receive the approval of his employers, that recklessness will never be tolerated, and that there is no place for the up-and-at-em boy who tries to outdo his fellows in getting through. With the right spirit supplied, the rest can be left to the pilot.

In the air it must be left to the pilot. There is no parallel between a locomotive, running upon fixed rails and governed by a block-signal system and an airplane. Conditions in the air are too variable to be intelligently interpreted from the ground. The decision upon whether to go on or to turn back can only be taken by the man at the spot. He should be given, by radio, all the information that exists. He should be free to call for special help if he wants it, but the final decision must be his alone, precisely as for the master of a ship at sea. The

case of the Yeoville offered some ugly lines of what may happen when a commander afraid (or in the air) begins to receive instruction from an officer aloft.

The case is not to do after departure. The pilot who is competent to reach a decision in the air ought to be competent on the ground as well, but at present we are dealing with an established condition that cannot be suddenly amended. Wave, water, and conservative judgment are not yet universal. Ground supervision of the pilot's decisions may be judicious, if not necessary.

We accept it and recommend it as the best means of working out the impermissibly safe from the operating personnel. In the air the pilot's decision is the only one.

Before the take-off let us be the first decision, but let it be subject to check. When the pilot declines himself ready to go, someone—say Mr. Brinsford's "tolerant person not a pilot," but someone with long flying experience—should have the right of veto. And about the second time that who has to be interpreted there should be no opening for a new pilot, for the man who is willing to start a flight seriously is equally likely to keep on seriously after starting, when there will be no check on his judgment except the check of disaster.



### Billboard Publicity

**A**IR TRANSPORTATION, as represented by air service industry, is still the best and best of the aviation industry. In our estimation, we are prone to encourage future possibilities to tickle the palate of a gourmet, while neglecting many of the more prosaic responsibilities of the present.

The men who are giving of their time and resources to increase the comfort of the younger generation through pilot development, airplane model contests, and various club development administration and coordination. The attempt to interest all the public in aircraft shows by entertaining them with model reviews and "traveling treasuries," has a serious purpose in view. Yet we ought never to neglect an appeal to the man or woman of financial resources who may be interested in air transportation as a straightforward business proposition. In fact, it may even sometimes be reasonably feared that some of our most spectacular propaganda activities count as unconscious negative reflection on the most important class of prospect now in view.

Since air transportation is the keystone of our atomized progress, and it might be well to concentrate upon it more directly. Much has been done by previous advertising in newspapers and magazines—more so than before.

However, there has been one major factor in our modern industrial age which has been almost neglected. Consider the commonplace billboard. Regardless of our

esthetic reactions to its more vividly eye-catching manifestations, we are forced to admit its potential utility in publicity work. Our personal acquaintance runs to only three large cities in which it has been employed to any considerable extent in behalf of aviation.

Suppose some authentic aviation organization of national reputation were to foster the preparation of a set of really attractive aviation posters, which would be as much of a sense asset as any billboard can. In one corner would be left a blank space where information concerning the departure and destination of scheduled transport planes would be locally inserted. Let the air transport organizations of any city enlist the cooperation of their chamber of commerce or board of trade to secure available bill-posting space well located. The result would be a formidable air transportation campaign whose cost would be nominal.

The roving eye of the visitor in the city, who is inevitably a traveler, and whose time has some monetary value, would be attracted by the signs. The salesman or traveling representative, most nearly exemplifying the traditional hawk who roams as he roams, would be widely accepted as "Hawes leave every day for Washington, Philadelphia and New York at 1 p.m.—See Pittsburgh, Cleveland, etc., at 11 a.m." From his train window as he scans the city, from his taxi window or as he hurries along the street alone, the posters would hammer home their message.

Smaller or later, the reader would take that first air trip, which is what all our educational activity is aimed at. Once we have hit our foot on the ground, we first victory is won. It would be one of the most noticeable ways of bringing air transportation forcibly home to the traveler, who as a stranger often has neither the time nor the inclination to read the local papers. If the billboard can advertise the United States of America as advantage, as evoked by the recent "Forward America" poster campaign, certainly it can bring genuine and legitimate aid to aviation.



### Esprit de Corps

**S**AFETY is the first consideration in operating an aviation. Reliability, economy, consideration for the convenience of passengers are all important, but all must take secondary places until a consistently satisfactory measure of safety has been secured. Fortunately, if all these qualities are considered in a broad light they are no conflict between them. Economy in air transport is not to be found in elimination of safeguards or in reduction and arbitrary reduction of personnel, but in the suppression of waste. A wasteful organization is not only expensive, but sick and therefore dangerous. An unsuitable line in most cases can be made a bad

one not because of unwillingness to fly in discomfort, but because of inadequate equipment, ground organization, or meteorological information service. To set a high standard of efficiency in performance is, in aviation transport interests, have long since discovered, one of the best assurances of a good record of freedom from accident.

Neither safety nor reliability, and not even economy except in a very limited way, can be assured by propagandizing facts from the executive offices. An air line is an inherently decentralized organization. King Curate behind the pulpit may tell the writers of expenditure and of accident loss to roll back, but without something much more than passive obedience on the part of his subordinates the life will continue to rise.

One little phrase describes the raw material of success in aviation. It is the opinion of this editorial. The greatest aviation leaders of all the ages have been great because they audaciously cultivated it. To an air line as well as to an army, its presence means success and its absence failure.

Esprit de corps gives form within. It is the embodiment of the realization by every member of the organization that he is engaged not only in earning a weekly wage or a yearly salary but in rendering a great public service. We shall never get satisfactory results unless every individual member of the organization feels a positive responsibility for the organization's performance and a genuine pride in its achievements. Air transport has no place for clock-watchers at any price.

Pride in itself and in its organization! There is the keynote. The spirit must develop by gradual growth, but much can be done to encourage it.

One very helpful measure in the proper use of uniform attire. When uniforms were developed and adopted for armies and navies, it was only incidentally so that the friendly forces might be distinguished from the enemy. The uniform had a deeper purpose in symbolizing the organization's concrete purpose and common will.

It has the more purpose today for an air line, but to serve that purpose a must be respected. Most of the leading air lines now provide uniforms. In a few cases one might suspect that the object had been to spare the pilot the expense of a suit of overalls. We have seen uniforms that were faded and greasy, with buttons tarnished or missing entirely. We have seen pilots in winter wearing blue uniforms accented by broad overcoats. We have seen uniforms broader implied by golf caps. In an organization where such things can occur something of the happy-for spirit is lacking. A complete lack of uniformity of suits is better than the tawdry pretense of some heterogeneous mixture of garments. It may seem a little thing, but it is the visual evidence of the attitude of the pilot towards his service and towards the passengers who must be his first consideration. A little thing,—but a vitally important evidence of a very great one.

# THE STORY OF *Aircraft* *Tubing*



Horace G. Kneer

## The First of a Series of Three

NATURAL born by experience that structural materials arranged in tubular form afford the greatest strength and stiffness for a given weight. Beams and girders are tubular. Man learned the same thing by engineering methods. Therefore, the bones of aircraft, the skeleton parts which give the structure its support and strength are today made principally of seamless steel tubing. In addition to its superiority from the design standpoint, steel tubing has outstanding advantages for the shop man. It can be readily cut, turned and bent into desired shapes, and is easily fitted and joined. While the theoretical advantages of tubular members apply principally to parts carrying compression, bending or torsion, the tubular section has practical advantages far like in tension members, because of the readiness with which different parts can be made. A tube is ideal for the true type of construction, where the members must carry tension or compression alternately, as well as bending.

Steel tubing may be joined by various methods including welding, lancing, riveting, bolting and soft soldering. Each method has its place. More than 90 per cent of the work in this country is done by oxyacetylene welding. Tubing is very well adapted to joining by welding, as it is only necessary to make a

fairly accurate cut and complete the joint with weld metal. Where joints are made by riveting, it is usually necessary to provide clips or fittings for connecting the stresses from one member to another. Some manufacturers, notably the British, have developed this method in very ingenious ways. Riveting has the advantage that parts can be heat treated before assembly, when heat treating after assembly is impracticable, as in a large fuselage.

Recently the Cunningham-Mell Aircraft Corp. has constructed steel wing beams of heat treated alloy steel tubing joined by means of bolts. The chrome molybdenum steel tubes are heat treated to long straight lengths to a tensile strength of 140,000 lb. per sq. in. The remarkable characteristics of chrome molybdenum steel permit drilling and other machining to be done in the heat treated state.

The wing beams illustrated in figures 4 and 5 are those of the Curtiss Condor, type 18-30. The chord members are chrome molybdenum steel tubes drawn to elliptical section and heat treated in straight lengths to a tensile strength of 140,000 lb. per sq. in. The lattice members are round tubes of the same steel, for which normalizing gives sufficient strength. The beams are



All metal wing structure. Beams are of chrome-molybdenum steel tubing.

By S. L. GABEL  
and HORACE G. KNEER



Seamless steel, welded fittings readily obtain

## Articles on the History and Characteristics of Steel Tubing

*Aircraft tubing has played, and continues to play, a major part in the construction of aircraft. Present-day construction style is toward rather than away from it. The president of the Summerhill Tubing Company, Bridgeport, Pennsylvania, is S. L. Gabel, and his company has done much to advance the seamless tubing trade. Horace G. Kneer, serving as consulting engineer to Summerhill, is best-known in the aircraft industry as president of Metallab of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, where he is undertaking extensive research on metals for airplanes. Herewith is presented the first of a series of three articles by these two which should be of interest to those who fly as well as to those who build the planes. The complete history and characteristics of tubing are set forth in a clear and concise manner.*

and uniform strength without distortion. Beams comparing favorably in strength and lightness with those of wood have been produced.

Axles and other parts of landing gear have been made of heat treated alloy steel seamless tubing for many years, as they are subject to the most severe stresses and strains. These and one half per cent nickel steel was formerly employed, but has been superseded by chrome molybdenum steel. Engine mounts are a more recent field for heat treated steel.

Three principal types of steels are used in aircraft today. The earliest efforts to adopt steel were made with the ordinary commercial grade, commonly referred to as mild or cold steel or cold drawn steel, having a carbon content of approximately 0.10 to 0.20 per cent. This material is easily worked, either hot or cold, and can be cold drawn to a tensile strength in the neighborhood of 60,000 to 70,000 lb. per sq. in., with a fairly good elongation. However, in bending, welding or hot forming this steel the strength increment introduced by cold working is removed, leaving the material in the fully annealed condition, where its strength may be as low as 40,000 lb. per sq. in. This was inadequate for even the poorest military outfit. Specifications were therefore revised by the Army and Navy to call for steel having a carbon content of 0.20 to 0.30 per cent, known as steel No. 1025. This steel, after the heat of welding, etc., retains a tensile strength of not less than 55,000 lb. per sq. in. Its working and welding qualities are practically as good as those of the low carbon steel.

Either of the foregoing steels is a "heavy" metal of construction because of its low strength-weight factor. Commercial steel is still used by a few aircraft builders, perhaps through a mistaken idea of economy. Steel No. 1025 is employed where the desirability factor is a mixture of elasticity and not strength. Its greater mechanical economy, uniformity and reliability make it preferable to the commercial grade, aside from its physical properties. Chrome-molybdenum steel No. 4130X is well on the way to displacing both and is today virtually the standard material of construction for aircraft in this country. The danger of misusing No. 1025 steel with No. 4130X steel in stress or during fabrication has led many manufacturers to abandon the former

made up by welding. The heat is confined close to the point of junction and does not affect the middle third of the open sections where the stresses are high. In the Curtiss King Bird, the wing beams were of similar design but the parts were welded together in the annealed state and the beams then heat treated in sections. This practice is believed to be preferable.

The successful and economical use of steel tubing in the construction of aircraft wing beams has been made possible by the development of vertical electric furnaces for heat treating either the tubing or the beams in high



together, using only No. 4130X steel throughout. Chromo-nickelchromium steel was carefully studied by the Army Air Service and was found to possess remarkable properties. It can be cold drawn to the very thin walls required in aircraft construction, can readily be heat or flame-treated to desired shape but not cold, has excellent welding characteristics and retains a relatively high strength after being subjected to the heat of working. Furthermore, it responds exceptionally well to heat treatment, developing physical properties better than ordinarily expected of an alloy steel of similar or comparable



Series of four bars for Army bombers. Subsequent to flame treatment the lighter bars are heat-treated and cooled. Heat treated to 100 ksi and 120 ksi.

weight factors are given in the accompanying table. It will be seen that alloy steel when heat treated to a tensile strength of 150,000 lb. per sq. in. is equal in lightness to a material of construction to carbon steel. This does not take into consideration savings in weight possible by welding steel as compared with riveting duralumin joints. Steels which are heat treated to a higher strength than 150,000 are "lighter" than duralumin. Good chromo-nickelchromium steel may be readily heat treated to a strength of 200,000 lb. per sq. in. with a yield point of 170,000 or over and an excellent ductility and toughness. When correctly treated it is not brittle and has a high resistance to fatigue.

**STEEL** alloy steel used today in aircraft is made either by the open hearth or the electric furnace process. By means of the electric furnace, steel of the very highest quality can be produced. The impurities such as phosphorus and sulphur can be held at extremely low limits and the various inclusions and particles of slag and sand, commonly known as "dirt", can be kept at a minimum, thus contributing to high endurance under repeated stress. Steel of very good quality can also be produced in the open hearth furnace. While this steel does not have the exceptionally fine properties of electric furnace steel properly made, it is quite satisfactory for most structural parts. Chrome steel is made in furnaces ordinarily having a capacity of three to two tons, heated by means of the electric arc. The temperature can be accurately regulated, the contaminating effects of fuel are avoided, the steel can be held for any desired retreating period to drive it of non-metallic inclusions and the chemistry of the process can be closely controlled. The relatively small quantity of metal handled contributes to the quality of the product. The open hearth furnace usually has a capacity ranging from 25 to 100 tons at once. The metal is heated in a large shallow basin by means of intense heat applied from above.

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under the arch of the furnace, the fuel being oil, gas or fuel. Under either process, the skill and care of the steel maker is a very important factor in determining the quality of the finished product. Chemical analysis and physical tests by themselves are no guarantee that steel will give the desired service. When the melting reactions have been completed, the molten metal is tapped from the furnace into a ladle, from which it runs it is poured into cast iron ingot molds and allowed to solidify. From these it is removed in the shape of square, hexagonal, octagonal or conical ingots weighing from about one-half to several tons. The upper and sometimes the lower end of the ingot contains a considerable quality of impurities and internal defects and is therefore cropped off and scrapped. The remainder of the ingot is supposed to be sound and homogeneous but it is here that the most serious defects in steel often occur. Unusual grain size and shall have been exerted by the steel maker, this part of the ingot may have carbon along its core, known as "pipe", due to shrinkage; blow holes scattered through its mass due to entrapped gases; cracks and other defects in its outer surface, due to various causes, and gross numbers of small non-metallic inclusions referred to as "dirt" scattered through the metal. Moreover, the composition may vary greatly from core to surface and from top to bottom, due to segregation of the chemical constituents. It is freedom from these defects that the better grades of steel may command a higher price.

**TUBES** are made in hot worked by rolling, pressing or forging into a bar possibly 8 to 5 in. in diameter and 10 to 20 ft. long. The working not only shapes the material but also greatly improves the character of the metal by



Course of raw steel workpiece after rolling tubes being cut in half and polished appearance in cold drawing. Proper and heavier for production of 10 ft.

of the billet. A piercing point, consisting of a hard heat resisting steel point mounted on the end of a rod, as passed against this energy as the billet is moved forward and the hole is thereby enlarged and rounded.

The inside and outside of these crude tubes are very rough and are usually ground down in the piercing operation. The length is increased but the outside diameter is



Fig. 3. Wing frame of Curtiss-Cowley. Fig. 4. General view of the end of one of the tubes.

breaking up and reducing the coarse grain which resulted from the slow solidification of the ingot.

These long bars or tube billets are the raw material for the piercing mill. They are cut into short sections by means of a high speed cutting disc and heated in a furnace to a high temperature for piercing. The billets are introduced into the piercing mill, which consists essentially of a pair of conical shaped rolls, one arranged flat, in passing between them, the billet is reduced and if the mass is moved forward, while being subjected to pressure from the rolls. This results in producing a somewhat irregular opening along the axis

not greatly changed. The pierced billet, still hot, is threaded over a rod or mandrel and rolled longitudinally between grooved rolls. The length is much increased and the diameter moderately reduced in this process and the walls of the tube are made thinner and smoother. Next, the hot tube may be passed over another mandrel and rolled cross-helically, further reducing its diameter, increasing its length and making it more accurately round.

Mechanical defects, such as pipes, blowholes, cracks, etc., which were present in the ingot may possibly be welded and drawn out or more of the hot working operations. On the other hand, such defects often remain in the metal, becoming flattened and greatly elongated as working proceeds and resulting in a so-called "seam" or laps in the tube. The piercing operation may produce folds and strains in the metal which are flattened out, but not removed, during subsequent rollings.

For structural parts of aircraft and where accuracy of dimensions without final machining or grinding is required, or where special shapes, thin walls or small diameters are called for, the tubing is cold drawn. Some hot rolled tubing is used for engine parts, notably for cylinders, bearings and the like, being of course, annealed.

Table 2—Typical Strength Weight Ratios of Aircraft Materials		
(Strength Means Tensile)		
	lb. per sq. in.	lb. per cu. in.
Marble—8 ft. thick in dia.	40,000	2.0
Alloy steel—heat treated high	200,000	21.0
Alloy steel—heat treated medium	150,000	15.0
Duralumin	110,000	11.0
Monel metal alloy	140,000	14.0
Alloy steel—annealed	110,000	11.0
Steel—annealed	110,000	11.0
Low alloy steel—annealed	80,000	8.0
Monel metal—annealed	120,000	12.0

Weight (approximate)

Weight (approximate)

carbon and alloy content. After heat treatment this steel may be machined more readily than other alloy steels of the same strength and hardness.

When comparing structural materials for aircraft, it is necessary to take into consideration both the weight and the strength. A simple reason for doing this is to divide the strength by the specific gravity of the material, obtaining a number which may be called the strength-weight factor. A material having a high strength-weight factor is a lighter material of construction than one having a low strength-weight factor. Some typical strength-



# AIR TRANSPORTATION AND ITS

By BRUCE CLOGETT

Madison, N.Y., Oil Column and Chief

THE ENORMOUS STRIDES made in air transport work have brought to the front highly important legal and economic problems which should be discussed and solved intelligently in order that mistakes may be avoided which for generations hindered and retarded the development of the railroads of the country.

Two of these problems may be briefly stated as follows:

(1) Should there be regulation by the Federal or State Governments, or both, of the rates for carrying passengers, freight and express by airplane, and if so, what form should this regulation take?

(2) Should the carrying of the United States mail by air transport continue to be done with through contracts between airlines companies and the Postoffice Department, or should the air mail be treated as the same way as railway mail is now treated?

These questions are not merely abstract legal problems. They vitally affect the success or failure of what is rapidly becoming one of the largest industries of the country. They have to do with the use of airplanes by individuals using them for business or pleasure, but they vitally affect the very rapidly growing business of the use of aircraft as common carriers—transportation through the air for hire of passengers, mail, freight and express.

There can be no possible doubt that the next few years will see an enormous increase in the amount of freight, express matter, mail and passengers which will be carried by air transport. To just what extent traffic will be taken over from the railroads is problematical and is no part of this discussion. It is sufficient to point out that the domestic railroads have already reduced the variable and increasing expenditures in co-operation with air transport companies for the joint movement of passengers, mail and express, and that this co-operation naturally will extend to at least the lighter forms of express and freight traffic needing expeditious movement.

Up to the present time both Federal and State aeronautical legislation and the comparatively few Court decisions have so bearing on rates or charges (except as to air mail) but have related primarily to air sovereignty and the licensing and inspection of airplanes, pilots, air routes and landing fields.

Recently, however, bills have been introduced in Congress proposing regulation of air transport rates by the

Interstate Commerce Commission and it appears certain that other regulatory legislation, both Federal and State, is certain to be widely discussed. The extent of such proposed legislation is to treat air transport in much the same way that railroads have been treated in the past.

The relationship between railroad regulation and air transport regulation is clear: that might appear on the surface. A large proportion of air transport, especially of passengers and mail, is carried on by joint arrangements between railroads and air transport companies. This is due primarily to the fact that very few passengers so far desire to ride in airplanes at night and, therefore, the night portion of long journeys are made by train. In co-operation with the railroads, air-transport service has been devoted almost wholly to movements between the larger centers and, therefore, much of the air mail is carried on air lines is transported by train. In addition, there is a close analogy between railway and

airline transport, in that both legally are common carriers over fixed routes.

THE HISTORY of railroad legislation illustrates how far the prohibition of public opinion may swing between helpfulness and oppression. Just as now, legislators and the public are particularly anxious to do everything possible to help aviation, so, in the beginning of the railroads, they received general, public and legislative support. Many of the first railroads were constructed by public grants from the Federal or State Governments and Municipalities of lands or actual cash. Later, and as a result, in part at least, of the ineptness of early railroad management, legislation and the public began a period of repressive regulation. The middle ground, strict regulation, combined with encouraging help, finally came in the Transportation Act of 1920. This law requires the Interstate Commerce Commission to fix rates for the carriers as a whole, or by rate territories, as better efficient management would yield as

## Legal Problems

newly as might be a fair return upon the aggregate value of railroad property.

The Act also empowered the Interstate Commerce Commission to set that interstate rates were not so low as to create a burden upon interstate commerce. Prior to the war, the theory had been that the more competing railroads were constructed the better for the public interest. The new law proceeded upon a new consideration, that it was a disadvantage for the public to have more railroads than were needed to handle the needs of the country and to afford a reasonable amount of competition. The result was that the law provides that no new railroad can be constructed except upon the issuance by the Interstate Commerce Commission of certificates of public necessity and convenience. The new Act also authorized pooling when found by the Interstate Commerce Commission to be in the public interest and specifically empowers the Commission to authorize combinations. Under the law, carriers affected by such orders of the Commission would be released from the

*With air transport playing an ever-increasing part in American commercial and private life, it would seem altogether advisable for operators to take time out for a careful study and review of American railroad history. The problems which now confront transport operators are rather strikingly similar to the problems which confronted railroad operators. As Mr. Claggett points out in the accompanying article, the way in which the railroad problem were handled, or rather mis-handled, proved a hindrance to iron horse development in this country. It is his opinion that if air transport operators permit history to repeat itself, it is quite possible that aeronautic progress will be retarded more than ever.*

operation of both the Federal and State Anti-trust laws.

A new departure in the Transportation Act of 1920 was to authorize time improvements by the Commission over the issue of stock, bonds and other securities by the railroad companies.

With respect to air transportation, some of the lessons taught by railroad regulation have already been embodied in Federal and State legislation, but it is clear that only a beginning has been made.

Probably it will be generally agreed that the relative authority of the Federal and State Governments with regard to transportation by air is approximately the same as with regard to railroads. Both are derived from Section 8, Article I of the United States Constitution granting to Congress power "to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states."

Article I provides that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution are prohibited to it by the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." No constitutional question has given rise to more discussion and resulted in as many closely argued cases than the relative jurisdiction of the Federal and State Governments over commerce.

This is not a place for a review of the court decisions which furnish a part of the schooling of all lawyers. It is probably sufficient to refer to the fundamental decision of Chief Justice Marshall in *Gibbons v. Ogden* and to



Bruce Claggett



Loading mail while the pilot busy over the instruments

the words of the Supreme Court in the case of *Hill v. Demar*, as follows:

"May we think it may safely be said that State legislation seeking to impose a direct burden upon the interstate commerce or to interfere directly with its unobstructed free passage upon the executive power of Congress?"

The basic Federal legislation on aeronautics is contained in what is known as the "Air Commerce Act of 1926." This Act at present contains no provisions as to rates, the subject of securities, competition, or any of the other subjects which have proved so difficult in railroad regulation. It does, at the outset, dispose, as far as the United States law is concerned, of a problem which at one time presented to it a very real and one, namely, that could occur over the air. Section 6 of the law contains a provision that "the Congress hereby declares that the Government of the United States has, to the exclusion of all foreign nations, complete sovereignty of the air space over the lands and waters of the United States, including the Great Lakes." It affirms, the Act goes to the Secretary of Commerce power to designate and establish civil airports and to chart and light them, but provides that no exclusive right shall be given for the use of any civil airport, airport, emergency landing field or other air navigation facility. The Act also gives to the Secretary of Commerce the duty of enforcing certain provisions of the law in that authorizing the Secretary of Commerce to license airplanes and pilots, and, as a safety measure, it is declared unlawful to navigate any aircraft "in interstate or foreign air commerce" unless the aircraft is registered with the Department of Commerce and unless the pilot has an Air Man Certificate from the Department.

Many of the States have followed the example of the Federal Government by passing laws regulating the licensing of airplanes and pilots and controlling the construction and operation of airports. The best of these laws provide for acceptance by the States of the Federal licenses. Both the Department of Commerce and a Committee of the American Bar Association have prepared drafts of uniform State laws on the subject. Already confusion has begun because of the varying provisions of different State laws on the subject and this confusion promises to lead the confusion regarding railroad regulations unless prompt steps are taken in the direction of uniform state laws.

Admittedly, legislation affecting the licensing of planes and pilots is only a beginning. Present laws do not specifically affect the licensing of airlines companies, control over rates, competition or monopolies, or other problems which have presented the greatest difficulty in railroad regulation. General laws both of the Federal Government and of the States probably cover the competition question and State "Blue-Sky Laws," where they exist, incidentally apply to aviation company securities, but, except with respect to railroads, there is no Federal security law and no Federal or State agencies have as yet been set up with the power to regulate rates and service of transport by air.

While some of the bills introduced in Congress have proposed that the Interstate Commerce Commission be given jurisdiction over air transport, in addition to railroads, there apparently exists a general feeling that the Interstate Commerce Commission is already overbur-

dened with work and that if there is to be Federal regulation the task should be entrusted to the Department of Commerce as a new independent Commission. Undoubtedly there is danger of any such legislation having the effect of discouraging investment in the different branches of the airplane industry. It is an "infant industry" and, therefore, needs management rather than repression. It is clearly for this reason that all proposed regulatory legislation must be most carefully scrutinized and particular attention paid to the opinions of Government officials who have had long experience in dealing with aviation activities.

The question is whether air transport rates and service and securities are to be regulated, and if so, how. Every one objects to being regulated and, therefore, the natural position of the airplane companies is to say "let us be alone." That is exactly what the railroads and their fight against regulation almost meant them. Perhaps it would be better for the air transport companies while everyone is sympathetic toward them, to agree on liberal and proper regulation for the protection of themselves and the public.

The development of the air mail appears likely to follow in general the history of the railway and, and, therefore, that history is important to persons contemplating investment in air transport companies, as well as to the general public using the mail.

WITHOUT PRECEDENT upon our history, it is sufficient to say that the Act of Congress approved July 7, 1918, authorized every railroad to the United States a "post card" and that within certain limits over existing law. For many years after the mail began to be carried by the railroads, arrangements therefor were contained in contracts between the Postmaster General and the individual railroads to make the same service as the air mail is now contracted for by the Postmaster General in accordance with the Acts of Congress approved February 2, 1918, June 8, 1918, and May 17, 1918. Subsequently, the system of railway mail contracts was gradually abandoned and the Postmaster General stopped mail over practically all important railroads on common carriers, the compensation of the railroad being fixed by Congress. As a result of long agitation, due largely to the claim of the roads that they were not being paid a compensatory rate, Congress, by the Act of July 28, 1916, conferred upon the Interstate Commerce Commission power to determine fair and reasonable rates and compensation for the transportation of the mails by railroad common carriers, the Commission to prescribe the method, or methods, by weight and space, or both, or otherwise, for ascertaining the rate of compensation.

Speaking generally, all the principal railroads of the United States carry the mails and are compensated on the same basis. Previously, under the Act of March 3, 1873, the railway mail compensation was on the basis of a rate per mile, per annum, according to the average daily weight carried on each route, the weight being determined by weighing the mails for not less than thirty consecutive working days and at least once every four years (report of Joint Congressional Committee, August 31, 1914, page 59), but at present, and in accordance with the law recently passed by joint action of the Interstate Commerce Commission, decided July 10, 1918, (144 ICC 625) the compensation to the railroads is on a rate per mile, according to the authorized space allowed to the mail carried on the route. This compensation for

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the larger railroads runs from 4.50 cents a mile for each train foot closed-pouch space to \$9.00 cents per mile for each sixty foot half-width postpaid car. The maximum payment on any mail route for the larger railroads, over any part of which mail is distributed, not less than six days a week, is \$72 per mile per annum.

The air mail was first carried directly over limited routes by the postmaster department in Government planes, but under the present law, the air mail is now carried under contracts made by the Postmaster General with private air transport companies. Such contracts under the law may compensate the private companies at not to exceed \$3 per pound for air mail for the first thousand miles and not to exceed 30¢ per pound additional for each additional one hundred miles, or fractional part thereof, for routes in excess of one thousand miles in length. In practice, the contract rates received by the private companies run from 60¢ per pound to \$3 per pound.

States existing law air mail contracts are awarded by the Postmaster General upon competitive bids. The practice is for the Postmaster General to lay out the proposed air mail route, to advertise for bids and to award the contract, not necessarily to the lowest bidder, but to the lowest responsible bidder, consideration being given to financial soundness and capacity in determining responsibility. Contracts run for a period of five years. At the discretion of the Department, following two years of satisfactory operation, a contract may be renewed to the contractor for eight additional years, but the Department may, at its discretion of the manner thereof, revise the contract price downward to what may be agreed upon between the contractor and the Department as a fair price. If the parties cannot agree on a revised rate, the contractor may refuse the right way revitalize and appropriate under his original contract until its expiration. The contractor is not required to begin operations until airway aids to navigation have been installed by the Department of Commerce.

One fact not generally recognized is that in addition to the government for carrying the "air mail" (that is, mail on which a 5¢ stamp is now required) the law permits the Postmaster General to make contracts for the transportation by aircraft of first class mail other than air mail (that is mail on which a 2¢ stamp is now required) at fixed rates per pound, including equipment.



A shipment of air freight stored aboard a transport.

not exceeding 60¢ per pound for the first thousand miles and not to exceed 30¢ additional for each additional hundred miles, or fraction thereof, for routes in excess of one thousand miles in length.

It will be seen from the above outline of existing conditions that the present outstanding difference between the law and the actual operation of air transport with respect to carrying the mails, is that practically all railways carry the mails, at least to some extent, whereas no air transport company may carry the mail unless it first makes a contract with the Postoffice Department. The railroads which are closely compensated when they carry the mails but so far the Postoffice Department has not made such contracts with airplane companies on competitive routes. This policy has been followed largely to encourage existing companies, but one problem is how large this condition will be continued and what situations from various things concerning the mails may be obtained by companies desiring to establish express routes primarily for the transport of passengers and express, or freight.

A subsidiary but related question presents itself with regard to express business, since the introduction of parcel post, packages may be carried in fourth class mail matter, weighing as much as 11 lbs., although at the present time, only first class mail is carried by airplane.

The question, however, between the larger carrier and the railway mail service goes much deeper than the relative cost. So far as the methods of handling the mail are concerned, the air mail service has hardly begun to compete with the railway service. At present the air mail operations are almost totally confined to carrying bulk mail in sacks between the larger centers of population, although on most of the present contract air mail routes some intermediate stops are made and mail for those points discharged. The mail thus discharged is then distributed by the usual methods without assistance from the air mail.

The railway mail service, however, is much more highly developed. In addition, in performing the load of service as is now carried on by the air mail, there exists on most of the railway postoffice cars a considerable amount of mail, in part, to the mail service and, in part, by railway mail post office. On these cars the mail is distributed along the route of the railroad, and at some cases the mail is loaded in such detail on the railroad postoffice cars that it goes directly, at destination, to the houses by carriers without stopping in the local postoffice.

Perhaps it is too early and would not be beneficial for any one interested in the future of air transport to attempt to lay down inflexible rules or make definite proposals as to how the air mail should be handled in the future, or as to the method, if any, of regulating the activities, service and charges of air transport companies. Probably it is sufficient to confirm the problem. Some of them are unsolvable. They concern the last thought of government agencies, the air transport companies themselves, and the public generally. Their proper solution, along with a settlement of the many technical questions of aeronautics will go far to make the future of air transport in the United States secure. The object of this should be no solution of air transport development, but under it. The understanding of the problem as the railroad regulation problem has been unsharpened may slow up the progress of service and transport and minimize the truly successful developments since Lindbergh landed at Paris.

# Newspapers AND AIRPLANE

*A Member of the Industry Defends the Policies of the Press, and  
Better Cooperation Be Afforded the Newspaper*

**Y**OU PICK UP your morning paper and with your statistical eyes find, tucked on several of the news that "Ketter Thunders His Kites in Atlantic Coast." That statement stretches for eight columns across the top of your paper in bold-face type. You, as many of us, in the aviation industry, shudder and read not without permit a share of relief for the press to run in your interests. This is because you are indeed in fact the newspapers are treating so unfairly in playing up airplane accident stories.

Condemned editorially by aeronautical executives have been printed in aviation magazines taking newspapers and reporters to task for the manner in which they have handled stories on various crashes. Statements issued from the offices of air transportation companies in which the press is scolded are not rare. And it is a common incident to walk up to a group of pilots, or company employees and hear them berating newspapers and newspaper correspondents for their actions during some recent accident. The consensus of all these conversations, statements and efforts is that the newspapers are unjust to the aviation industry.

But, is the press of the nation really unfair in its treatment of air accidents?

From an operator in one position one would naturally assume one answer would be "Yes." It would seem quite logical to believe we would side with the majority of other operators who hold that belief. For one, myself, as well as others have experienced the effect of "sensational" headlines in many newspapers throughout the country. But, as the role of reporting is to be an observer, we are going to take the side of the newspapers. As we feel many of the operators have brought and are continuing to bring the dilemma of "crash" stories on themselves.

Perhaps the position of the newspapers and their reporters can be more clearly understood by first comparing them with an automobile agency and its salesman.

The primary purpose of the press is to present the news as quickly and correctly as possible. Every paper is in essence striving to beat its rival in the street with a story. The object of an automobile agency is, of course, to sell cars; and to sell more than its competitor.

Reporters exist because the press wants the news early. The papers cannot afford to wait until Demos Ransom, with his deliberations and hesitations, brings in the finished details of a story. Automobile salesman exist that the firm for which they work may also survive. No automobile firm could hope to remain in busi-

ness long if it employed no salesman to go out and call on prospective buyers.

Just here the similarity between a newspaper and automobile agency and their representative ends, however. For the salesman may come back to his employer and offer an acceptable and plausible excuse for not having sold a certain prospect. But the newspaper reporter can offer no excuse. As this must get the story, no matter what the cost, he must get the story as likely as not even into his job. Therefore, lacking proper and substantial information, which a member of the company whose plane has fallen, might give, the reporter must perforce write what he sees, or what some bystander has seen.

By-reference at best an unreliable, and the sight of a plane falling several thousand feet inspires even the hardest of us to horror. What then can we expect of an irresponsible young reporter who publishes his information from what he has seen and from an even more impressionable co-witness?

Read any account of an accident as related by a bystander and the very abhorrence of it is often profound. The probable reason is because it is human nature to seek and lose publicity. A man on being interviewed instinctively assumes an air of superiority and gestures himself a hero. Consequently he presents his remarks to run wild and an account of the accident is quickly lost current. It is this type of story which is injurious to aviation. And it could be very easily avoided if operating companies followed the policy of sending reporters to gathering the true facts. Seldom has a newspaper printed a really impressive story when its newspapermen were given the correct information by a company official. But, unfortunately, all aviation concerns do not follow this policy.

**N**EWSPAPER MEN will tell you it has been their experience that many aviation executives, in a sense, men to cover in accidents involving their companies, and as a result the newspapers take co-witness accounts from so-called "authorities" who know nothing about accident causes.

Obviously this is the sort of thing that results in accidents being played up by some papers; for the story element produced in these cases by rate executives and officials, and the therein accounts given by bystanders add for sensationalism in the printed stories.

Crash, Ransom and They Say, all children of hotwheels, are the things that interest operators here most so far as the time of accidents. They could, however, be made the least thing if operators took the proper

## ACCIDENTS

*Suggests that Bigger and  
Reporter*

steps to avoid them rather than to avoid newspapermen.

"How did it happen?" is always the first question a reporter asks when he approaches the scene of the accident. And 99 times out of a 100 he receives a grin "How do we know?" from some company employee who has been instructed to "say nothing." Very often reporters and cameramen are roughly scolded and told to clear out. The newspapers then turn to the first person who is willing to talk—and there are many of them. As a result a disfigured, unconscious and injured story appears in the next editions of their papers.

"What then is the proper procedure; how can this be avoided?" you might ask. Our answer is: Gather the reporters together as one group. Refer to them the actual facts and true causes of the accident. Give as clear and concise an account of the affair as it is possible and be equally silent during the rest of the day.

Be painstaking in your efforts to describe the affair in detail and in a manner readily understood by the general public, for it is the public which will read the reporter's stories. Simple terms are necessary because, although a reporter is required to have a working knowledge of many subjects, aviation has not yet entered into the scheme of things as generally as have others. Therefore, you can readily understand how easy it is to find the accident cause in a cloud of mystery by coaching your account in broken terms unfamiliar to the layman. The reporter writes in the simplest form of every-day English, so talk to him in the language with which he is familiar.

We believe we are safe in saying that newspapers have done more for aviation than has the industry itself in the matter of making the public air-minded. How else could Lindbergh's flight to Paris have focused the eyes of the nation on aviation had them not been newspapers to carry accounts of his new record feat?

Colonies after colonies of space were devoted to other tremendous flights. The story of the Lindbergh's magnificent world flight ran for nearly 30 days in practically every newspaper in the country.

Whenever an accident, endurance, speed or other record has been broken the newspapers have made front page stories of it. Times when refusing insurance attempts reached the point of London last summer the press helped aviation by carrying many, many inches of type. And yet, when an automobile set a reliable endurance record run several months ago the public knew nothing of it until the manufacturer came out with announcements of the fact in paid advertisements.

Remembering the co-operation and worthwhile pub-

licity the papers have and are continuing to give aviation, are we right when we say they are unfair to aviation?

Is not opinion we are not right in saying they have been unfair in their treatment of accidents. An accident story is news, just as is the story of some outstanding feat. The newspapers have always printed the facts as they found them. And if aeronauts have craved into some of their stories it is the fault of those of us in the industry.

**P**ERHAPS there is an isolated case here and there where a newspaper has allowed prejudice to influence the action. This is possible, but it is a pretty safe wager that if the truth were known it was because of some injustice the aeronautical concern effected had done the newspaper. And among the even farther, it is likely the injustice done the newspaper originated from the actions of an official, which would make the prejudice a personal one.

We have had dealings with many newspapers and reporters. Not one that we have ever known has been unkind or would write an intentionally derogatory statement about anyone without it being absolutely warranted. There are few professions with a stricter code of ethics for its adherents to follow while in the line of duty. All newspapermen we have known have been pretty square-shooters providing those with whom they were dealing were first on an occasional level. We know of no many open-minded group of men there. But, like the rest of us, they are human and, if treated fairly, or repaid in their efforts to perform their duties, they can be just as mean as anybody. Hence, if one makes it a point to treat the reporter fairly, he is bound to do the same for you.

What we have said about reporters holds true for newspaper cameramen. They can offer no acceptable excuse for failure to obtain a picture without first of losing their job. Newspapers demand results. The photographers, therefore, put forth every effort to get that for which they have been sent. Work with them, give them your co-operation, assist them in carrying out their duties and you will quickly see what really good follows them are. Deliberately place barriers in their way and they will get the best of you in the long run.

An operator in having either than helping himself and the aviation industry, when he makes a deliberate attempt to hide facts, and, to prevent publication of an account of a crash-up. To keep an airplane accident out of the papers is impossible. And the greater all of us realize this and help the newspapers against the correct information, the better it will be for all concerned.



By  
**CHARLES A.  
RHEINSTROM**

General Traffic Manager  
Douglas Aircraft Corporation

# REGULATING *Air Commerce*

## ARTICLE VI—ACCIDENTS

*The Last of a Series of Six Articles by the Section Heads  
of the Regulatory Division of the  
Aeronautics Branch*

**A**IRPLANE ACCIDENTS are analyzed in connection with a method developed by a Committee appointed by the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics. This Committee is composed of members from the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, the Army Air Corps, the Navy Bureau of Aeronautics, and the Aeronautics Branch of the Department of Commerce.

A standard method of analysis was created whereby a uniform analysis of accidents could be made in order to arrive at comparative figures. This system has now been in effect for over a year and a half, and in recent comparisons with the Army and Navy accidents, has proven itself extremely successful, and a nucleus for the intelligent study of accidents and their prevention.

Wishing to say, this Department is vitally interested in all accidents, but it has been found possible through a detailed study of their causes to permit possible recurrence, either by according the present Regulations in regard to the necessary qualifications for pilot's license or requiring better flying precautions in certain airplanes.

When a serious accident has occurred, the nearest inspector proceeds at once to the scene in order to collect all the information he can in connection with the crash, including whenever possible the statements of any witnesses. The report includes, besides pertinent information regarding the pilot and plane, a careful reconstruction of the events leading up to the accident as far as possible, based upon the information obtainable. This report, after completion, is ready for sub-

By **PENDELTON EDGAR**  
Chief, Accident Staff,  
Aeronautics Branch  
Department of Commerce



mit to the Accident Board, which consists of two or more competent pilots, an aeronautical engineer, a flight surgeon, a lawyer well versed in air law, and a musician. It is readily seen that expert knowledge can be brought to bear on contributing factors.

Very seldom is an aircraft accident attributable to a single cause only. For instance, the accident report indicates that a pilot, when coming into land and at an altitude of 200 ft. suddenly discovers that he has allowed the engine to become inoperative by failing to occasionally check it when coming down from several thousand feet. A good emergency field is within easy gliding distance, but the pilot has had judgment and attempts to stretch his glide into the regular landing field. A stall results and another airplane accident has occurred. The question is whether the major cause of the accident was engine failure, carelessness or negligence, poor technique in not keeping the engine clear, or poor judgment in not landing in the emergency field. The accident is then distributed according to the percentage of causative factors, as shown in the accompanying Table of Aircraft Accidents in Civil Aviation.

It can readily be seen that with this definite means of determining why accidents are happening it is possible to point the way toward preventing their recurrence. At the present time, current figures are kept of the number of various causes of planes in operation. This is compared with the number of accidents that have occurred in the same plane, together with the nature of the crash. The result is obvious, taking into consideration the type of

Cause	Percentage			Average
	January- June 1928	July- December 1928	January- June 1929	
Pilot				
Error of judgment	8.45	11.16	17.70	
Poor technique	22.14	28.90	31.82	
Exhaustion or drowsiness	4.98	3.10	1.76	
Overconfidence or negligence	1.59	1.10	10.00	
Misfeasance	.12	.28	.47	
Total pilot errors	48.29	55.54	54.34	
Other Personnel				
Engineer	.16	.08	.38	
Mechanics	3.40	1.05	1.51	
Total errors of personnel	44.76	12.13	12.31	
From Pilot				
Roll system	1.70	1.70	1.81	
Control system	.50	.76	.64	
Ignition system	4.80	4.40	5.53	
Lubrication system	.30	.20	.31	
Engine structure	1.00	1.25	1.04	
Propellers and accessories	.40	.70	.79	
Engine control system	.00	.20	.25	
Miscellaneous	.40	.35	.49	
Unexplained	10.10	11.76	10.00	
Total power plant				
Weather				
Clouds	1.00	1.00	1.00	
Thunderstorms	1.00	1.00	1.00	
Wing structure and loading	1.00	1.00	1.00	
Unexplained	1.00	1.00	1.00	
Total weather				
Unexplained	1.00	1.00	1.00	
Total unexplained				
Unexplained	1.00	1.00	1.00	

Analysis of Accidents in Civil Aviation for 1928 and the Week of the Month of 1929

flying in which the plane is engaged. Whenever the percentage of accidents become too high, the Department goes directly to the particular manufacturing concern and then does all in its power to assist him in eliminating the defect.

Another reason is kept of the number of accidents in which the pilot is involved. Whenever the same pilot is seen to be having a number of accidents which are attributable to pilot's error, a letter of reprimand is sent the pilot, a new flight test ordered, or in a flagrant case of incompetency the pilot's license suspended, or revoked.

As an example of an accident involving pilot's error, we cite a typical case. John Doe, private pilot, 22 ft. 6 in., flying in his airplane at 2,000 ft. altitude, between New York and Boston, when he approaches a heavy bank of fog. The weather is clear behind with many favorable landing fields, but he proceeds in the face of these bad conditions. His plane is not equipped with the proper instruments for blind flying nor has he had any experience in this kind of flying. Regardless of his lack of training and insufficient equipment, he proceeds into the fog, after a few moments he becomes lost, more and more confused, and finally loses control of the plane, spinning into the ground. Obviously, this accident cannot be attributed to weather for the cloud bank could

easily have been foreseen and avoided. The correct distribution is a combination of poor judgment and technique, that in all probability was directly due to inferior school training.

A large number of crashes indicating lack of proper training reflected back on the pilot's original training, and as expected, student instruction was shown to be inadequate and the greatest contributing group as to kind of flying engaged in. As a result, the conditions and recommendations of the Accident Board were that the standards of flying schools must be raised. This suggestion was followed and taken care of by an amendment to the Air Commerce Act of 1930, which made it mandatory for the Department of Commerce to examine and rate flying schools upon their request. At present, there are over 35 rated schools and the rated standard of the pilot's primary training is already commencing to be reflected in the lower percentage of accidents attributable to inferior instruction.

Another John Doe with several hundred hours comes to the attention of the Accident Board on account of spinning in as a result of a race high turn with insufficient flying speed. It is found that this is not his first accident and it is discovered that his record discloses several previous accidents attributable to poor

*The method of procedure followed by the Department of Commerce in the matter of aircraft accidents is something which has aroused considerable discussion in aeronautical and laymen circles alike. In this article Mr. Edgar relates in*

*detail of the work of the Accident Board in analyzing the causes of aircraft accidents, not with the idea of affixing blame or liability on any particular individual but with the idea of preventing possible recurrences of a like nature in the future.*

technique. A search is made in the Medical Section records to determine, if possible, whether or not the pilot has any physiological or psychological disqualifications that might have played a prominent part in the crash. If there is any question, a new medical examination is ordered, with a new flight test, or suspension of license.

The terms and their definitions for the purpose of aircraft accident analyses are as follows:

1. **Personnel**—This includes all accidents which can be traced to persons necessary to the operation of the aircraft, either on the ground or in the air. This does not include accidents due to errors or omissions of personnel charged with the design, manufacture, maintenance, or inspection of aircraft.

2. **Errors of Pilots**—This includes all accidents, the responsibility for which rests upon the pilot. The pilot is the actual commander of the controls or the individual responsible for their correct manipulation.

3. **Error of Judgment**—This includes all accidents resulting from a decision made by the pilot which was not the best possible under existing circumstances.

4. **Poor Technique**—This includes all accidents resulting from lack of skill, dexterity, or coordination of the senses in handling aircraft controls, whether traceable to the inability to attain such or is irrelevant. It includes lack of experience in flying, lack of experience in flying under particular conditions, or in the particular type of aircraft. (Judgment involves mental activity only for the purpose of arriving at decisions as to the path to be attained and the general course to be followed. Technique is the physical expression of the mental decisions which have been made.)

5. **Disobedience of Orders**—This includes all accidents resulting from the violation or disobedience of local or general orders or regulations or provisions of law governing the operation of aircraft, such as air regulations, aerobics in aircraft not to be used for such purposes, or any other type or manner of operation specially forbidden by orders or regulations issued by competent authorities.

6. **Carelessness or Negligence**—This includes all accidents resulting from the absence of care on the part of the pilot according to circumstances or the failure to use that degree of care which the circumstances justify demand, either on the ground or in the air, such as careless manipulation of the controls of an aircraft, failure to ascertain the accuracy of gauges on board before taking off, failure to ascertain the conditions of the atmosphere, etc.

7. **Misinformation**—This includes all accidents resulting from errors of the pilot not accounted for above.

2. **Errors of Supervisory Personnel**—This includes all accidents the responsibility for which rests upon individuals other than the pilots who exercise control over the operation of the aircraft, such as navigators, formation section leaders, ground-operations officers, etc.

3. **Errors of Other Personnel**—This includes all accidents the responsibility for which rests upon other personnel directly concerned with the operation of the aircraft, such as members of the flight and ground crews of the aircraft, aeroplanners, etc. It does not include accidents due to errors or omissions of personnel charged with the maintenance or inspection of aircraft.

4. **Material**—This includes all accidents resulting from failures of the airplane, power plant, accessories,

and branching and armoring devices, whether traceable to materials, faulty design, maintenance, or inspection.

1. **Power-Plant Failure**—This includes all accidents resulting from failure or malfunctioning of the propelling system and all accessories essential to its proper functioning, exclusive of instruments.

(a) Fuel system, (b) Cooling system, (c) Ignition system, (d) Lubrication system, (e) Engine structure, (f) Propeller and propeller accessories, (g) Engine control system (Throttle rod, etc.), (h) Miscellaneous, (i) Undetermined.

2. **Structural Failure**—This includes all accidents resulting from failures of the airplane exclusive of the propelling system and accessories. (a) Flight control system, (b) Movable surfaces, (c) Stabilizing surfaces, (d) Wings, struts, and bracing, (e) Landing gear (This includes all accidents resulting from failure of the landing gear struts and shock-absorbing gear, but does not include accidents resulting from failure of the wheels or down-attached struts), (f) Wheels, tires, and brakes, (g) Seaplane float or boat, (h) Pivots, engine mount, and fittings, (i) Tail skid or wheel assembly, (j) Armoring appliances on aircraft, (k) Miscellaneous, (l) Undetermined.

3. **Handling Qualities**—This includes all accidents resulting from those possible characteristics of various types of aircraft affecting their controllability while on the ground or in the air, such as marked tendency to ground loop, inability to recover from a spin, etc.

4. **Instruments**—This includes all accidents resulting from failures of instruments which were essential to operation under the conditions of the flight.

5. **Landing Devices**—This includes all accidents resulting from failure or malfunctioning of outcrops 6. **Armoring Devices**—This includes all accidents resulting from failure or malfunctioning of armoring gear not a part of the aircraft.

III. **Miscellaneous**—This includes all accidents not accounted for above.

1. **Weather**—This includes all accidents resulting from conditions of the weather which could not reasonably have been foreseen and avoided. (Climate may be made on the chart of contributing weather cases, as fog, ice, rain, snow, rain, lightning, etc.)

2. **Disturbance**—This includes all accidents resulting from conditions due to natural forces which could not reasonably have been foreseen and avoided.

3. **Airport or Terrain**—This includes all accidents resulting from airports or landing conditions of places which could not reasonably have been detected or avoided. (Proposed landings should be changed to power plant, etc., unless report shows that a landing error existed, in which case the crash would be analyzed accordingly.)

4. **Other**—This includes all accidents resulting from causes not otherwise accounted for above.

#### IV. *Undetermined and doubtful*

It is emphasized that the only interest of the Accident Board in collecting and analyzing the causes of aircraft accidents is to render assistance in preventing possible future occurrences, and eliminating those causes, and is not for the purpose of affixing blame or liability on any particular individual. As a result information in connection with any specific accident is not made public, and is available in statistical form only.

## THE *All-Wing* Type AIRPLANE

### *A Description of the New Northrop "Flying Wing"*

By JOHN K. NORTHROP

Proprietor, Northrop Aircraft Corporation



employed, but at least the design of such a gear is considerably difficult due to the high loads involved and limited space available for the required mechanism.

Power plant drag is a problem that cannot be solved with a conventional arrangement, unless the engine is completely housed, liquid cooled, and smooth skin wing radiators are used to dissipate the heat. Such installations have proven satisfactory for racing planes, but are far from practical for commercial or military purposes at the present time.

The recreation of the fuselage, except in a few rare instances, remains a dead loss, with no possibility of reduction except through careful faired and streamlining; and also, due to aerodynamic accuracy, the cost of the fuselage is much less than would be desired from an economic viewpoint.

Wing surface loading and interference between the various parts of the airplane comprise one of the largest contributors to parasite drag and the one most difficult to determine. Even in the cleanest full cantilever monoplane, there still remains a large increase in drag due to interference between fuselage, wing, chassis and tail surfaces.

And finally, in the control surfaces themselves, we often find it impossible to use even a fairly good aerodynamic form, or to place the surfaces where they are not subject to considerable turbulence and interference from fuselage, wings and power plant.

THE ROCKETRY considerations and others of similar nature lead W. K. Jay and the author to the development of an experimental "Flying Wing" type airplane which has been built and tested during the past year and a half, and gives promise, with certain modifications, of solving many of the problems that confused the designer who seeks a large increase in aerodynamic efficiency.

IT HAS BEEN apparent for several years to the designer of aircraft that some radical changes in general arrangement will be necessary if any large increase in the overall efficiency of the average airplane is to be accomplished.

A steady program of development and refinement has been under way for the past twenty years; and we have at present a number of carefully designed and comparatively efficient planes embodying streamline fuselages, carefully cooled engines, and "clean" landing gear; with sophisticated struts, wires and fittings supposed to be an absolute minimum. It seems quite apparent that our best designs are close to the limit of practical efficiency; yet we find that their maximum over-all L/D ratio is only about 30, whereas the L/D ratio of the active supporting surfaces of an airplane is normally double this amount.

An analysis of the three adding to parasite drag in the normal design shows that landing gear, power plant, fuselage, interference and bracing, and control surfaces are the major contributors to parasite power loss; the item of control surfaces being by far the smallest. Individual examination of the various items show that nearly all possible improvement has been made in existing designs.

Landing gear removal offers one of the largest theoretically possible gains, but a tremendous amount of thought has been given to the problem and a well known example is the "Flying Wing" type airplane. The low wing monoplane offers the best, and almost the only possible conventional arrangement in which a retractable landing gear can be

The "Flying Wing" in various forms has been a well recognized dream of designers since man began to fly, but it has always been plagued by prohibitive costs and unworkable ideas. However, certain comparatively recent developments have made many of its advantages immediately applicable to planes of moderate size. Wing sections with maximum ordinates of more than 25 per cent show excellent aerodynamic characteristics, and plan form tapers with a root to tip ratio of more than 5 to 1 have qualities equal to or better than a rectangular airfoil. The combination of thick sections and large taper at once enables a wing structure with control portions of such size as to become economically practical for the purpose of housing power plant, personnel and cargo. The structural advantages of such a design are tremendous, and the general arrangement provides ample space for the retention of landing gear which, while somewhat unconventional, has proven entirely satisfactory during actual flight tests.

**T**HE FIRST YEARS of this type, recently successfully flight tested, was built primarily as a flying laboratory to test out the various interrelations of structure and arrangement of component parts. For this reason the plane was designed as small as practicable, while still providing ample room for a pilot and one passenger. No attempt to place this particular model in production will be made, the advantages of this type of craft becoming very marked as it is applied to somewhat larger sizes. The original plane is all-metal and employs a newly developed type of structure in which the stress members are of solid sheet, properly reinforced, forming both covering and most of the structural strength of wings and tail surfaces. This structure is being employed in the design of a new transport monoplane of conventional aerodynamic form which will shortly be placed on the market by the Northrop Aircraft Corp.

The all-wing plane which has been light tested is a thick wing monoplane of high taper ratio, the taper being entirely on the leading edge, in order to balance the plane with engine and pilot at the wing, which results in a marked degree of sweepback. The wing has a span of 30 ft., and tapers from a section of normal thickness and approximately 45 in. chord at the tip, to a chord of 100 in. at the center and a wing section with a thickness more than one-third of the chord. As may be seen from the photographs the taper is gradual from the tips to a point about 1/4 of the distance from tip to center and then increases rapidly to the thick central portion. The wings are so extended with relation to the fuselage center section as to give the effect of a center wing monoplane. The inverted air-cooled engine is carried almost entirely

within the wing, a small housing projecting a short distance in front of the leading edge, and all flight tests so far conducted have been with pusher propeller arrangement, although later tests are to be conducted with the tractor set-up. Two cockpits are provided in the wing one each side of the power plant and all control surfaces are operated by brace and cable link-up, with dual hydraulic controls, one in each cockpit. The propeller shaft, approximately seven feet long, extends between the two cockpits to the propeller, which is mounted 6 in. in front of and considerably above the trailing edge of the wing. Tail surfaces are carried on two cantilever support beams, one in section, which extend to rear of and considerably above the main wing, thus providing for ground clearance of the tail group, and also placing the tail control surfaces up above the wing wash and most of the propeller blast. The propeller turns between the two engine booms.

The tail surface consists of a rectangular stabilizer and elevator combination of unusually high aspect ratio, which terminates at each end in an elliptical vertical surface consisting of fin and rudder. The control surfaces thus form a complete structural unit supported at each end by the booms from the wing. Elevator adjustment is accomplished by routing the entire unit in its boom mountings. The outriggers taper to section and thickness and are heavily reinforced at the point of their attachment to the wing. They are designed to carry air loads only and can therefore be made considerably smaller and lighter than though their function included carrying conventional tail loads. No external bracing is used in their support and no vibration of the tail surfaces, due to their constructive flexibility, has been experienced.

The leading gear consists essentially of three wheels carrying approximately equal loads, and grouped beneath the center section of the wing. The two forward wheels have the unusually wide track, for such a small plane of 5 ft., and are placed considerably farther forward, about 12 in. ahead as possible in a conventional design. The third wheel is located on the center line and just forward of the trailing edge and is pivoted for easy ground handling. They are all located close to each portion of the wing structure where there is ample room for retention. The experimental results have proven satisfactory in actual flight tests, but for the purpose of carrying on extended tests of performance and maneuverability a conventionally prominent mounting has been temporarily given to the three wheels.

Flight tests have now been conducted over a period of twelve and during many hours in the air the plane has shown remarkable maneuverability and performance, and although best with most of the troubles common to

new types, the plane as designed has proved entirely satisfactory. All test flights have been made by Edward A. Bellanca, veteran western test pilot and superintendent of the western division of T A T-McDonald Air Lines.

**T**HE experimental plane was arranged for flight tests as a pusher unit and tractor in order to determine the most satisfactory and efficient location of the propeller. In the pusher arrangement a Mark III Conquest engine, specially imported by Messers Motors, Inc. of Los Angeles, drives the propeller through a drive shaft. The rear end of the shaft runs in a large ball bearing which is housed in a fin-like structure above the trailing edge of the wing. The front end of the shaft is carried directly in a bracket coupling on a light flywheel mounted on the engine crankshaft. The entire drive shaft needs



Three cockpits near clear of the following plane.

two or more supports unless possible a very efficient horizontal surface of high aspect ratio and no root loss, and its location to the rear and above the wing causes it to form most interference due to drag in power plant, so that it has been found possible to use 20 per cent less surface on the horizontal stabilizer and elevator without loss of adequate control. Therefore the drag of the control surfaces and their support is much less than in conventional designs.

The arrangement of the landing gear concentrates the landing loads in a drop structure where they can easily be provided for; possibility of nose over is practically eliminated, and complete restriction of the whole chassis, including tail wheel, as a comparatively simple matter.

With an eye to the future possibilities of the design it may be well at this point to compare the open leading airplane with the best of conventional designs and to see how the means which contribute to drag have been affected. The drag caused by the chassis has been entirely and comparatively easily eliminated. The power-plant drag is not changed appreciably if we employ radial air-cooled engines, but to have air-cooled engines may be completely housed within the wing and cowl, as is the present model with considerable saving. In case liquid-cooled engines are used, they may be completely housed and easily accessible in flight. The type of wing structure used is easily made water tight, so that the cooling liquid may be circulated within the wings by means of a pump system with return ducts to a pump from which the engine is supplied. Such a system is not subject to the faults of the ordinary wing-type radiator as the liquid is not under pressure and small leaks or even bullet holes would make only a small loss of cooling liquid. If perfected such a cooling system would completely eliminate any drag due to liquid cooling coils or piping, and would also do away with much of the weight necessary in present types of liquid cooling radiators.



The Northrop plane in flight.

seven wings approximately 35 ft. and has proved to be free from vibration or torque whips, as now installed. In the tractor tests a Messers A-4 four-cylinder inverted engine will drive the tractor propeller directly. In either case cooling is provided by air passing through a large hood extending entirely through the wing from the front screen in the engine cowling to an opening just ahead of the trailing edge on the lower side of the wing. Flight tests have proved this cooling arrangement entirely satisfactory and a material reduction in drag has been effected by enclosing the engine.

Considering the chassis and tail surface arrangement of the present experimental plane we find there to have many advantages. The tail support structure is much lighter than an equivalent landing gear. The outrigger size is so small, and the angle of intersection between wing and outriggers such that there is little possibility of appreciable interference between the two. The use of



A front view of the Northrop all-metal all-wing type airplane.









## Ask Abolishment Of Michigan Code

Based on "Theory Rather Than Fact," say *Aviators!*

**DETROIT (Wich.)**—Possibly that the newly-formed Michigan State Air Code, which went into effect March 1, may be abolished or at least drastically revised is now one of a crowd of similar proposals being introduced by the Michigan Aeronautics Association, an organization composed of aviation operators from various sections of the lower peninsula. The resolution stated that the "theory" of the State Code was an unbridled monopolization of the airports of "first" and were founded upon "theory rather than fact." William A. Marx, vice president, *Michigan Aviators' Club*, introduced the resolution before the group. Approximately 40 members attended.

Passage of the Marx resolution came toward the close of the second of two sessions lasting more than 16 hrs., during which resolutions of the general assembly with Capt. Ray Collins, State Director of Aeronautics, advised of the significance. The meeting was called and presided over by E. A. "Bud" Galt, general manager of the Yerville Aircraft Co. and president of the *Aeromarine Association*. The Marx resolution will be presented to the State Board and to Gov. Fred W. Green and requests that the organization be given a hearing before the Board and the Governor. "For the purpose of presenting definite and detailed reasons for the abolition of this Code," the resolution was read in full.

"We move that the Michigan Board of Aeronautics be authorized to take steps to abolish the State Board of Aeronautics," said the resolution. "We move that the State Board of Aeronautics be authorized to take steps to abolish the State Board of Aeronautics," said the resolution. "We move that the State Board of Aeronautics be authorized to take steps to abolish the State Board of Aeronautics," said the resolution.

**Think Federal Rules Indefinite**  
"We feel that the public will be in a position to make such a decision as to whether or not the rules will be revised," said the resolution. "We feel that the public will be in a position to make such a decision as to whether or not the rules will be revised," said the resolution.

**Aviators' Association**  
The Michigan Aeronautics Association is a non-profit organization composed of aviation operators from various sections of the lower peninsula. The association is organized for the purpose of promoting the interests of aviation in Michigan.

The Association's meeting was the first of a series of meetings to be held in the near future. The Association is planning to hold a series of meetings to discuss the proposed changes to the State Code.

## NEW PLANES

Another eight-place cabin plane, combining airport status of the Whittier eight place model, has been introduced by the *Wright Aircraft Corp.*, Dayton, Ohio, and put through satisfactory test flights. Powered with two Wright 265 engine, this plane is an adjustable-wheel-base, its fuselage on the horizontal stabilizer, which allows easy manipulation of the craft when only one power plant is in use.

Successful test flights have been conducted on the new *Whittier Cabin* low-wing monoplane which is to mark the entry of the *Whittier Aircraft Corp.* into the market of light aircraft. The aircraft fielded previously to this date the firm has confined its activities to the development of a radically new type of flying wing monoplane, a description of which appears in this issue. The new plane is 35 ft. in length, carries six passengers, and weighs 2,500 lbs. when loaded in an N.A.C.A. coach.

**Arrow Aircraft**, Haverhill, N.H., announces the Arrow "Tiger" with 12 ft. 6 in. wingspan. The first "Tiger" is being built by the company. The "Tiger" is a single-engine, low-wing monoplane, with a fuselage 12 ft. 6 in. long, 3 ft. 6 in. high, and a wingspan of 12 ft. 6 in.

Beginning this day has been approved on the new *Whittier Cabin* low-wing monoplane powered with either a 265 or 285 engine. The new plane is 35 ft. in length, carries six passengers, and weighs 2,500 lbs. when loaded in an N.A.C.A. coach.

The State Board of Aeronautics, composed of William B. Hays, Director of Aeronautics, and Messrs. Charles C. Hays, Harry S. Hays, and Harry S. Hays, is authorized to take such action as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of the State Code.

The State Board of Aeronautics, composed of William B. Hays, Director of Aeronautics, and Messrs. Charles C. Hays, Harry S. Hays, and Harry S. Hays, is authorized to take such action as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of the State Code.

**Issue North American Warrents**

**NEW YORK (Wich.)**—Veritable mountains of paper, 21, 180, have been issued by the *North American Aviation Co.*, in connection with the original option given to *Wright Aircraft Corp.* for the production of 2,000 *Whittier Cabin* aircraft.

## Choose BaySide Site For N. Y. Glider Meet

**NEW YORK (Wich.)**—A 30-150 ft. plane, twenty years ago last invented for the *New York Glider Club* is to be held April 25-26 in a full afternoon at the *Long Island Glider Club*, Long Island City, N. Y. The *New York Glider Club*, Inc., is the sponsor of the event. The *New York Glider Club*, Inc., is the sponsor of the event. The *New York Glider Club*, Inc., is the sponsor of the event.

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This meeting will be held at the *Long Island Glider Club*, Long Island City, N. Y. The *New York Glider Club*, Inc., is the sponsor of the event. The *New York Glider Club*, Inc., is the sponsor of the event.

The program will consist of a series of flights, including a 30-150 ft. plane, twenty years ago last invented for the *New York Glider Club* is to be held April 25-26 in a full afternoon at the *Long Island Glider Club*, Long Island City, N. Y.

The *New York Glider Club*, Inc., is the sponsor of the event. The *New York Glider Club*, Inc., is the sponsor of the event. The *New York Glider Club*, Inc., is the sponsor of the event.

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**ALEXANDER KRAPF**, chief test pilot for the *Wright Aircraft Corp.*, is shown here with the *Whittier Cabin* low-wing monoplane. The plane is 35 ft. in length, carries six passengers, and weighs 2,500 lbs. when loaded in an N.A.C.A. coach.

## Report Massachusetts Violations, Accident Data

**BOSTON (Wich.)**—During the first year ended May 30, 1935, there were 41 violations of the Massachusetts aviation laws. The violations were: 1. Violations of the Massachusetts aviation laws. The violations were: 1. Violations of the Massachusetts aviation laws. The violations were: 1. Violations of the Massachusetts aviation laws.

Of the 41 violations, 30 were committed by pilots who were not licensed. The violations were: 1. Violations of the Massachusetts aviation laws. The violations were: 1. Violations of the Massachusetts aviation laws. The violations were: 1. Violations of the Massachusetts aviation laws.

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## Speedy Lines Feature Al Krapf's Low-Wing

The *Wright Aircraft Corp.* has introduced a new low-wing monoplane, the *Whittier Cabin*, which is 35 ft. in length, carries six passengers, and weighs 2,500 lbs. when loaded in an N.A.C.A. coach.

The *Whittier Cabin* is a single-engine, low-wing monoplane, with a fuselage 12 ft. 6 in. long, 3 ft. 6 in. high, and a wingspan of 12 ft. 6 in.

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## SIDE SLIPS

By  
Robert R. Osborn

THEY SAY C. F. McIL, soon to be an agent with another protest about our lack of respect when dealing with aeronautical activities on the Pacific coast. The part of his letter which is fit to print is a fine upstanding, healthy expression in no follow:

"I cannot understand why you so completely disregard the tremendous important gliding activities now taking place in the and other sections of the country. I, for instance, hold the world's record for glider landings, having been able to make a grand total of sixteen landings in my first six tries. I suppose if I'd been carrying an electric stove you'd have printed that one. Again seriously, I do want to get in a word for the California glider pilot."

Of course you have heard of Lindbergh, made famous by his five mile flight over the mile high Ridge Route mountains guided by but one witness and that one growing over the loss of his mate, and Harry Rowan has also probably been brought to your attention through his even more astounding record of a night landing and six hour endurance flight above the rugged coast line of Southern California in the dead of night, with the wind howling and the storm clouds swirling overhead, while the flaring main drive vandy to be torn and the lower chassis plates made twisting gears along the rock bound hills. It is a fact that Rowan flew much of the time within a few feet of the Point Loma hillside while he held a flashlight in one hand in order to keep from running into telephone wires, poles or other plants. Now that the flashlight itself had any more power which warranted off the diagram surrounding him, but his radio rays did serve to guide the wanderer of the skies to a safe haven."

Come to think of it we had heard of some glider activities on the Pacific Coast, but thought it must have been the work of a lot of amateurs, as we knew very well that no true California flyer would be interested in flying a ship having no motors nor landing gear to overhaul and repair while in flight.

Apparently the California flyer goes in for aviation in a big way even when they are students at sea. From the same C. F. McIL of Los Angeles, Cal comes a clipping stating, "in order to make more room for the solo students of the flying school to land, the presidential used during the 1938 National Air Races was recently removed from the Los Angeles airport."

As we remember it this presidential was an one edge of a beautiful field about a mile square to me take it that the students must be doing landed ship formation landings.

Apparently Mexico is starting a campaign of extending new events in competition with California and Western Connecticut. Miss H. L. of Torrance, California, Mexico, says that, "about the last of Waterman and Gould of changing from pants to pants in Mexico wasn't worth printing compared to things which happen in Mexico. Her letter says, "A Mexican aviator was flying along at 10,000 feet enjoying a tail wind. Suddenly, he hit a bump with such force and violence that his safety belt gave way and he had struck a steel landing member, bending it and putting the pilot to sleep. When he woke up, he found the airplane flying right out of a tree, two hundred feet above the treetops. He is undecided whether to protest the doctrine of the Guggenheim Safe Aircraft Corporation, judges, or to have the Contest Committee of the National Air Races include a similar event in its program. Anyhow, the landing member was bent. I saw it afterwards."

The first item which makes us doubt the story is that it seems about the tail wind to us are a heavy surprise of the Will Rogers story that no pilot ever asked he had a tail wind to help him. Another point which prevents us from entering that record is the look surprised at that a bent landing member is no proof of

anything. In fact all landing members are bent, and a private investigation we conducted once showed that pilots and mechanics spend away per cent of their time going around bending landing members. We were even thinking of getting out a ship with all landing members already bent but decided that this would be so much of a disappointment to the pilots and mechanics that they would boycott the ship.

So if Miss H. L. hopes to obtain any official recognition as the space she has to submit some real proof.

Miss Amelia Earhart calls our attention to an item in "Sky Tower" by A. Ralph and Margaret Rome, Read McNeil and Co.

"His trained eye would quickly detect any unusual sound in their rear. Then he fell up all three notes at once and was satisfied that they sounded exactly as they should."

The Intercollegiate Aviator says Miss Earhart's note and remarked, as he let out of our cages, that all of the COK's he ever had in his Jerry had sounded fed up most of the time, but he had's noted as he considered himself lucky when he got any sound out of them at all.

No one could be more enthusiastic about the ability of Colonel Lindbergh than we are, but we do think that the newspapers occasionally get him into situations which would be debasing to even a Duck McCreedy. The most recent example of this is in the clipping from the "Philadelphia Journal" discovered by J. G. V. of Kew-Forest, Pa. "Colonel Charles A. Lindbergh upon his twenty-ninth birthday and a narrow escape from death, near here, yesterday when the glider he was piloting dropped to the ground leaving the Colonel three hundred feet in the air."

BADGER PRODUCTS include a complete line of hand operated fire fighting equipment in Newington, Farm, Solid and, Carbon Tetrachloride type.

AVIATION  
March 29, 1938

## FIRE!

—and the thermometer below zero!

—ordinary extinguishers emptied because of the cold, or in a heated building far away!



## BADGER'S Non-Freeze Fire Engine

will kill the fire! Even temperatures of 40° below zero or lower can't freeze or clog this engine. Leave it in an unheated hangar or shed—on the flying field or yard. Regardless of cold or heat, one lever starts a big, powerful stream that puts out any ordinary fire before it gets dangerous. You should have this complete, year-round fire protection for your airport, hangar, or plant. Badger offers the only 40 gallon non-freeze engine which is tested and recommended for use by the Underwriters' Laboratories and Factory Mutuals. Send for full information and prices—TODAY!

BADGER PRODUCTS include a complete line of hand operated fire fighting equipment in Newington, Farm, Solid and, Carbon Tetrachloride type.

BADGER FIRE EXTINGUISHER CO.  
142 PARK SQUARE BUILDING, BOSTON, MASS.



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in the field of

AUTOMOTIVE  
ENGINES

makes us a  
most practical source  
for

AIRPLANE  
SPRINGS

on a production or  
experimental basis

Two Plants for Spring Service

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ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN  
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# The

# Plowman lifts his head

WITH bare hands, the plowman fought for his food. Hunger bowed his back, bowed his head.

Then the machine ... freedom ... time to cultivate his fellows as well as his fields ... to live, to think, to be.

Industry gave every man a hundred hands ... farms produced more with less men. Millions of workers flowed from farm to factory. Swiftly industry expanded, became complex.

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